Upward voice and influence

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CHAPTER 3

THE MOTIVATIONAL COMPLEXITY UNDERLYING EMPLOYEE VOICE: A MULTIPLE GOAL - STATUS INTERACTION PERSPECTIVE

The purpose of this article is to elucidate the motivational complexity underlying employee voice behaviors. Relying on the multiple goal perspective of achievement theory, we conducted two studies to examine the three-way interaction among mastery goals, performance goals, and status in relating to employee voice. Data were collected from 1,100 South Korean R&D employees nested in 109 work teams (Study 1) and from 150 Dutch hotel employees nested in 95 teams (Study 2). Results showed a similar pattern of three-way interactions across both studies in which the highest levels of voice occurred when employees had high mastery goals, high performance goals, and high social status. Furthermore, we identified employees' intrinsic interest and extrinsic interest in voice as proximal process mechanisms that clarified why mastery and performance goals functioned as motivational antecedents of voice. In sum, this article showed that mastery and performance goals explain the motivational complexity underlying employee voice while status functioned as a boundary condition that altered how combinations of employees' achievement goals influenced their voice behavior. Theoretical and practical implications were discussed.

Keywords: mastery goal, performance goal, status, intrinsic interest, extrinsic interest, employee voice

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Introduction

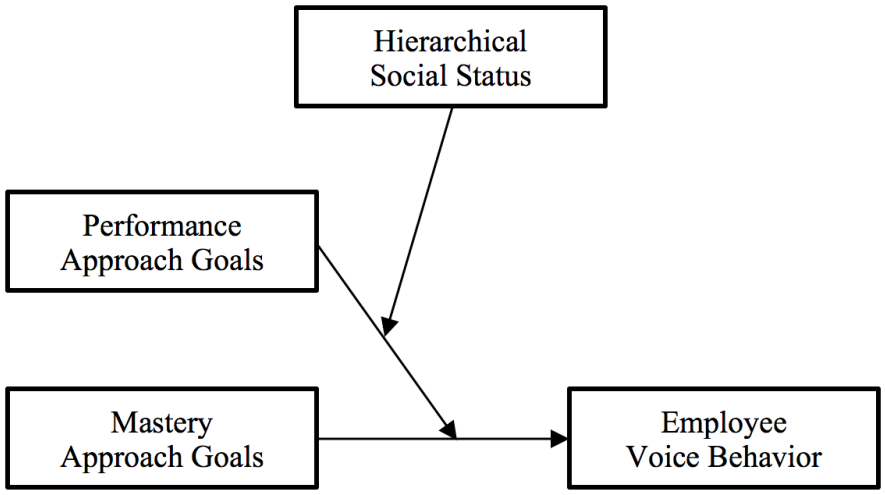
Scholars recognize employee voice behavior, defined as the expression of challenging but constructive ideas, opinions, or suggestions on work-related matters (e.g., Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Morrison, 2011, 2014), as a driving force behind the timely detection of serious issues and improvement opportunities in the workplace (e.g., Detert & Burris, 2007; Venkataramani & Tangirala, 2010). Studies have shown that voice has positive effects on group problem-solving (Nemeth, Connell, Rogers, & Brown, 2001), work-group task performance (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2011), and work-unit effectiveness (Detert, Burris, Harrison, & Martin, 2013). As such, managers and supervisors have come to rely on their employees' voice input in order to adapt to the demands and requirements of a dynamic and competitive work environment (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008). A growing body of literature has sought to identify antecedents of voice behavior, with several categories emerging. One category are individual dispositions and traits that promote voice behavior, such as proactive personality (Crant, Kim, & Wang, 2011), extroversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001), achievement orientations (Tangirala, Kamdar, Venkataramani, & Parke, 2013), and approach orientations (Kakkar, Tangirala, Srivastava, & Kamdar, 2016). Another category includes contextual and social factors, such as supervisor actions that spur psychological safety (Detert & Burris, 2007; Edmondson, 2003; Gao, Janssen, & Shi, 2011), social and personal identification with the leader (Liu, Zhu, & Yang, 2010), perceived organizational support (Tucker, Chmiel, Turner, Hershcovis, & Stride, 2008), and employees' status and role in workplace networks (Venkataramani & Tangirala, 2010).

These research efforts showcase the theoretical complexity of personal and contextual antecedents of voice. Specifically, they suggest that individuals must be motivated both to change and improve their work environment as well as to manage the social risks and opportunities inherent to voice behaviors (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). In particular, theoretical models of voice suggest that approach-oriented motivational constructs may capture aspects of both of these motivations (e.g., Morrison, 2011; Morrison, 2014; Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003). However, empirical findings remain inconsistent. For instance, achievement orientation – defined as dispositional aspirations and ambitions to succeed in one's career – was found to inhibit voice (Tangirala et al., 2013), while approach orientation – defined as an individual's disposition to improve situations – was found to promote voice (Kakkar et al., 2016). One reason these inconsistencies can emerge is because achievement and approach orientations each contain goal foci that may be differentially related to individuals' intrinsic and extrinsic interests in voice. To engage in voice, individuals must possess multiple goals that are linked both to the intrinsic aspects of voice – a desire for change and improvement – and extrinsic aspects – a desire to gather the performance benefits of voice. To develop these ideas, we draw on the multiple goal perspective (e.g., Barron & Harackiewicz, 2001; Senko, Hulleman, & Harackiewicz, 2011) of achievement goal theory (e.g., DeShon & Gillespie, 2005; Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Payne, Youngcourt, & Beaubien, 2007; Yeo, Loft, Xiao, & Kiewitz, 2009) as an underpinning theoretical framework to better elaborate on the motivational complexity of employee voice. We propose that mastery-approach goals and performance-approach goals may jointly motivate employee voice because of their respective links to intrinsic and extrinsic interest in voice. Using the multiple goal

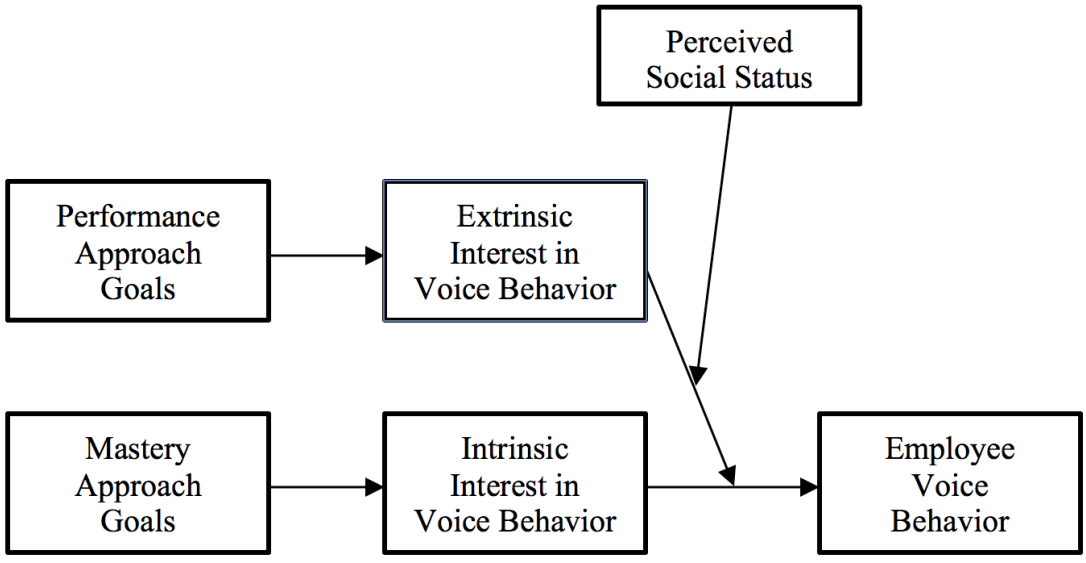
perspective can thus extend our understanding of the complex relationship between approach-oriented achievement motivation and voice.

Figure 1. Conceptual Model for Study 1 (top) and Study 2 (below)

Study 1 (Figure 1a):



Study 2 (Figure 1b):



Specifically, we argue that a mastery-approach goal, or the desire to develop competence by acquiring knowledge and mastering achievement situations (DeShon & Gillespie, 2005; Elliot & McGregor, 2001), triggers employees' intrinsic interest in voice – they perceive voice as valuable in and of itself because of its potential for

development and improvement. A performance-approach goal, or the desire to demonstrate competence by outperforming others (DeShon & Gillespie, 2005; Elliot & McGregor, 2001), triggers employees' extrinsic interest in voice – they perceive voice as instrumental for demonstrating superior job performance and positively influencing performance appraisals. We argue that a strong performance goal would boost mastery goals' effects on voice, thereby both goals would interact to relate to voice behavior.

The motivation for voice also depends on social factors (Morrison, 2014). Voice bears social opportunities and risks (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Morrison, 2014) that employees often consider as part of an efficacy-safety calculus (Detert & Trevino, 2010; Morrison, 2014). This calculus depends on employees' social status in the work-unit: because higher-status employees have prominence and possess latitude to influence the attitudes, behaviors, and decisions of others (Anderson, John, Keltner, & Kring, 2001; Anderson, Keltner, & John, 2003), they tend to believe they can safely and effectively engage in voice as long as they are motivated. Thus, the motivation for voice depends on the relative social status of employees. We propose that the interactive relationship between mastery and performance goals with voice and the mediating mechanisms of intrinsic and extrinsic interests in voice are moderated by employees' social status. We test our model across two studies. In Study 1, we test the three-way interaction of mastery-approach goals, performance-approach goals, and status to relate to employee voice (Figure 1a). In Study 2, we test a moderated mediation model with intrinsic and extrinsic interests in voice as mediators and status as a moderator (Figure 1b).

Through developing and testing these models, this article makes three contributions. First, we investigate the proposition that motivational antecedents of

voice must simultaneously consider both goals for improvement (i.e., mastery goals) as well as goals for social gain (i.e., performance goals). This contribution matters to the voice literature because too often there is an overemphasis on the prosocial motivation behind voice (e.g., Grant & Ashford, 2008; Morrison, 2014; Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003). Along with more recent research (e.g., Kakkar et al., 2016; Tangirala et al., 2013), our study supplements this view by incorporating multiple achievement goals into these frameworks. Second, by focusing on status as a moderator and incorporating considerations of efficacy-safety calculus into these motivational antecedents, we build on prior research suggesting that efficacy and safety concerns must be better linked with motivational antecedents of voice (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998, Morrison, 2014; Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Detert & Burris, 2007; Detert & Trevino, 2010). Finally, we extend the relatively small body of empirical literature on the multiple goal perspective of achievement motivation (Harackiewicz et al., 1998; Senko et al., 2011) by providing supporting empirical evidence of how mastery and performance goals interact in their relationships with voice behavior. In the following sections, we detail the theoretical rationale for the multiple goal perspective, then describe the two empirical studies in which we test our conceptual models.

Theoretical Background

Multiple goal perspective on achievement motivation

Achievement goal theory is a motivational framework to describe how individuals define, experience, and respond to achievement situations such as work, school, sporting events, or other situations where individuals are actively trying to attain goals in the face of challenging demands or obstacles (e.g., DeShon & Gillespie, 2005; Elliot, 1999; Payne et al., 2007; VandeWalle, 2003; Yeo et al., 2009). In this

framework, achievement goals' content reflects either mastery or performance. Mastery goals focus on developing competence by acquiring new knowledge, skills, and abilities; performance goals focus on demonstrating superior competence on performance indicators relative to socially relevant others (e.g., Poortvliet, 2013; Yeo et al., 2009; Van Yperen & Orehek, 2013). In this study, we focus exclusively on approach-oriented mastery and performance goals, which are defined as goals directed towards positive or desirable events. We focus on approach goals because unlike avoidance goals,[2] these goals have unambiguous theoretical grounding with respect to approach-oriented behaviors like voice (Van Yperen, 2006).

Mastery and performance goals are not mutually exclusive: individuals can simultaneously pursue both high mastery goals and high performance goals (Barron & Harackiewicz, 2001; Senko et al., 2011). According to the multiple goal perspective, three types of combinations are possible: the two goals may (1) have a positive interactive relationship that magnifies the level of an outcome (interactive model); (2) each have a positive main relationship on an outcome (additive model); or (3) have unique relationships on different, conceptually related outcomes (specialized model). In this article, we argue for an interactive model because previous research (i.e., Kakkar et al., 2016; Tangirala, 2013) suggests that the motivation for voice is multifaceted, implying multiple goals may be necessary to motivate employee voice behavior.

Interplay between mastery and performance goals in relating to voice

We propose that a strong mastery goal will trigger employees' intrinsic interest in voice behavior (i.e., voice is valuable and attractive in itself due to its potential for

[2] Some studies also consider the role of avoidance-oriented mastery or performance goals to analyze behaviors such as procrastination (Howell & Buro, 2009), social loafing in teams (Gagne & Zuckerman, 1999) or inhibited learning from peers (Van Yperen, Elliot, & Andseel, 2009).

learning, improvement, and development), whereas a strong performance goal motivates employees to be interested in and focused on the extrinsic value of voice (i.e., voice as a means to demonstrate superior job performance). Using the interactive model of the multiple goal perspective, we propose that mastery and performance goals have a positive interactive relationship that will be associated with the highest levels of employee voice behavior.

Mastery and performance goals each trigger different interest in voice. Specifically, we expect that employees motivated by mastery goals would have a high level of intrinsic interest in voice behaviors because mastery goals drive employees to seek improvement and development (e.g., Poortvliet, 2013; Van Yperen & Orehek, 2013) and to adopt deep information processing strategies (Darnon & Butera, 2007; Elliot, 1999; Pintrich, 2000). These employees are motivated to detect issues and shortcomings in work processes, products, and procedures in order to construct opportunities for improvement and development. Thus, due to the intrinsic value of voice for improvement and development, strong mastery goals are associated with employees' intrinsic interest in voice behaviors. In contrast, performance goals focus on demonstrating superior performance-related competence relative to others (Dweck, 1986; Gehlbach, 2006; Poortvliet & Darnon, 2010). Consequently, performance goals would encourage employees to view voice behaviors as an opportunity to display superior skill, expertise, and performance to socially relevant others (i.e., supervisors and coworkers). Due to the instrumental value of voice for performance demonstration, strong performance goals are associated with employees' extrinsic interest in voice behavior.

We expect mastery and performance goals to interact to relate to voice behavior because these two types of interest are simultaneously required for employee

voice behavior. More specifically, we predict that high levels of extrinsic interest in voice from performance goals boost the positive relationship of mastery goals with voice behavior. Employees with mastery goals who are intrinsically interested in detecting problems and developing improvement suggestions are more motivated to voice these recommendations when they also believe that these behaviors are instrumental in displaying expertise and garnering superior performance evaluations. In contrast, when employees lack this extrinsic interest in voice, their motivation for voice engagement will be suboptimal. Thus, employees with high mastery goals might perceive voice as intrinsically valuable, but without an interest in the social benefits of voice, they will be less likely to engage in high levels of voice. The interaction of low mastery goals and high performance goals is also not optimal for high levels of voice behavior. In this case, employees are motivated by the desire to display expertise but are unlikely to have sufficient intrinsic interest in voice to detect problems and create improvement suggestions that form the content of voice behavior. Finally, when both mastery and performance goals are low, employees altogether lack the intrinsic and extrinsic interests to engage in voice actions. In sum, we propose that mastery and performance goals each provide critical components of the motivation needed for voice and thus combine in an interactive fashion to relate to employee voice behavior.

Status as a moderator

Even when employees have the right combination of goals that spur both intrinsic and extrinsic interest in voice, social contexts can still facilitate or inhibit employee voice. Because the boons of employee voice behavior also bear the risk of social disapproval (Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Morrison, 2014), past research has documented how otherwise voice-motivated employees refrain from voice because they anticipate resistance, negative coworker evaluations, damaged work relationships,

or futility (Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Morrison, 2014). Employees' heuristic considerations of these opportunities and risks, described as efficacy-safety calculus (Detert & Trevino, 2010; Morrison, 2014), suggest that motivated employees refrain from voice either because they believe they cannot effectively implement voice behaviors or because the opportunity to capture social value is too limited. We argue that these efficacy-safety concerns limit employee voice behaviors depending on an employee's relative social status.

Work status stems in part from an employees' capacity to benefit leaders and groups in goal pursuit (e.g., Pettit, Yong, & Spataro, 2010; Ridgeway & Berger, 1986). Employees with high status have more influence over group interactions and decisions than low-status individuals because of this perceived capacity (Anderson, John, Keltner, & Kring, 2001; Bales, Strodtbeck, Mills, & Roseborough, 1951). Employees with higher status in the work team also possess more latitude to influence the attitudes, behaviors, and decisions of others in the team (Anderson et al., 2001; Anderson, Keltner, & John, 2003). Previous research has shown that those holding central positions in workplace network had greater potential to influence others and were more likely to engage in voice (Venkataramani & Tangirala, 2010). Similarly, higher-status employees will have good reason to believe they can effectively engage in voice if they are motivated to do so. Therefore, we argue that higher status creates more opportunities for employees to act in accordance with their internal motivations, and in this context, reduces employees' efficacy-safety concerns. Thus, we propose that employees' status would operate as a boundary condition for the interactive effects between mastery and performance goals on voice behaviors. Accordingly, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: *There is a three-way interaction among mastery goals, performance goals, and status such that the relationship between mastery goals and voice is positive only when performance goals are higher rather than lower and status is higher rather than lower.*

Based on reasoning developed previously, we propose that mastery goals focus employees' attention on the intrinsic value of voice behavior (i.e., voice is valuable and attractive in itself due to its potential for learning, improvement, and development), whereas performance goals trigger employees' extrinsic interest in voice (i.e., voice as a means to demonstrate superior job performance). Therefore, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2: *Mastery goals are positively related to intrinsic interest in voice.*

Hypothesis 3: *Performance goals are positively related to extrinsic interest in voice.*

Consistent with the rationale developed and presented earlier in the theoretical introduction, we expect employees' status in the work team to play a moderating role and form a three-way interaction with intrinsic interest and extrinsic interest in voice to relate to employee voice behaviors. We argue that the relationship between employees' intrinsic interest in voice is augmented by their extrinsic interest in voice when employees' status is higher rather than lower. That is, employees' intrinsic interest in voice motivates them to engage in voice, and this motivational force is stronger when a heightened extrinsic interest in voice is also present. However, the combined high levels of intrinsic and extrinsic interest in voice will only result in voice behaviors when employees have high status. This phenomena occurs because high status eases the efficacy-safety concerns that would otherwise constrain employees from engaging in voice. Put differently, although certain employees may have both high intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for voice, their efficacy-safety concerns would still prevent them

from engaging in voice. However, when these employees have high status in the work team, their efficacy-safety concerns are eased and they would be able to act upon the perceived intrinsic and extrinsic values of voice and engage in voice behavior. Accordingly, we put forth the following hypothesis.

> ***Hypothesis 4:*** *There is a three-way interaction among intrinsic interest in voice, extrinsic interest in voice, and status such that the relationship between intrinsic interest in voice and voice behavior is positive only when both extrinsic interest in voice is higher rather than lower and also when status is higher rather than lower.*

Taken together, we expect that the two-way interaction between intrinsic and extrinsic interest in voice operates as the proximal mechanism that links employees' mastery and performance goals to their voice behavior. In this context, status is a second-stage boundary condition in these mediational relationships such that the mediating two-way interaction of intrinsic and extrinsic interests in voice only emerges when status is higher rather than lower. As such, we formulate the final hypothesis to test the proposed moderated mediation:

> ***Hypothesis 5:*** *Status operates as a second-stage moderator in the indirect relationships of mastery and performance goals with voice that are mediated by the two-way interaction between intrinsic and extrinsic interests in voice. Specifically, the indirect relationship between mastery goals and voice through intrinsic interest in voice is more pronounced when extrinsic interest in voice is higher rather than lower and status is higher rather than lower.*

The present research

We present two studies to test our hypotheses. In Study 1, we examine how mastery and performance goals interact with status to relate to employee voice

behavior. We then conducted Study 2 to test our arguments regarding the proximal mechanisms of intrinsic and extrinsic interests. In the two field studies, we used different operationalizations for both achievement goals and status. In the achievement goal literature, achievement goals have been conceptualized and operationalized in different ways (DeShon & Gillespie, 2005). Some researchers conceptualize and assess achievement goals as dispositional goal orientations referring to stable patterns of cognition and action that result from the chronic pursuit of developing competence (mastery goals) or demonstrating competence (performance goals) in achievement situations (VandeWalle, 1997). Others argue that achievement goals are domain-specific goal states that are influenced by situational characteristics such as organizational climate and reward systems (Sijbom, Janssen, & van Yperen, 2015; Van Yperen & Orehek, 2013). In Study 1, we assessed dispositional mastery and performance goal orientations using Bettencourt's (2004) goal orientation measure. In Study 2, we used Elliot, Murayama, and Pekrun's (2011) measure to assess domain-specific achievement goals.

Moreover, we used two different operationalizations of status. Study 1 used organizational status referring to the hierarchical position that members of R&D teams fulfilled (for detailed information, see Method of Study 1). Based on status characteristics theory and expectation states theory (Berger, Cohen, & Zelditch, 1972), a focal individual's organizational position is seen as a status characteristic influencing other team members' expectations about the individual's ability to effectively contribute to the group (Magee & Galinsky, 2008). In Study 2, we focused on self-perceived status referring to how valued and respected an employee perceives himself or herself to be as a group member (e.g., Janssen & Gao, 2015; Van Dijke, De Cremer, Mayer, & Van Quaquebeke, 2012). When employees experience high levels of group-

based status, they feel respected by others in the work group and able to contribute to the group using their distinctive qualities (Tyler & Blader, 2003).

Study 1

Method

Sample. Study 1 was conducted in a sample of Korean R&D teams in a large, private-sector manufacturing firm operating in the defense industry in South Korea. Team members completed individual questionnaires that contained items related to mastery and performance goals. The directions for this questionnaire explicitly instructed members to respond with respect to their work-related goals. Team leaders, who were not members of the team, provided ratings of individual employee voice behaviors. Organizational status was assessed based on organizational records of employees' hierarchical status in the organization. The questionnaires were written in English, then translated into Korean according to established translation/back-translation procedures (Brislin, 1980). Surveys were given to a total of 1,500 team members, of which 1,267 responded to the survey. In total, 111 work teams participated along with 110 external leaders. After missing data was removed, the final sample consisted of 1,100 employees in 109 teams with 109 supervisors providing ratings. The mean age of respondents was 34.13 years and 89% were male.

Measures. All items were measured with a 7-point Likert scale (1 = very inaccurate and 7 = very accurate).

Mastery goals. For the mastery goals, we adapted 3 items from Bettencourt (2004)'s mastery goal orientation. Sample items included, "I put in a great deal of effort sometimes in order to learn something new about my job," "An important part of being a good employee is continually improving my skills." Internal consistency of the scale was $\alpha = .85$.

Performance goals. Performance goals were also adapted from Bettencourt (2004). Sample items included, "I feel very good when I know that I have outperformed other team members in my team," "I always try to communicate my accomplishments to my team leader." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was $\alpha = .76$.

Organizational status. The human resources department provided the organizational status from rank-and-file employee to more than senior manager (1 = rank-and-file employee, 2 = section supervisor, 3 = assistant manager, 4 = manager, 5 = more than senior manager).

Employee voice behavior. Team leader's assessments of employee voice were measured with three items derived and adapted from Simons and Peterson's (2000, see also Seong & Kristof-Brown, 2012) scale. Sample items are "this team member proposes his/her own ideas on procedural changes or new projects" and "this team member stands firm in expressing his/her viewpoints during disagreements." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was calculated to be $\alpha = .86$.

Control variables. In our analysis, we included several control variables to rule out alternative explanations for our findings. First, we wanted to assess the organizational status rather than other markers of social status was the key driver of our interaction. For this reason, we controlled for employees' age, education, experience and team tenure, all markers of status in this organization. We also controlled for employees' task interdependence because interdependence can influence the frequency of voice behavior (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998).

Measurement model. We performed confirmatory factor analyses on our mastery and performance goal items to assess their distinctness at the construct level. Results showed that the two-factor model fit the data well: χ^2 ($df = 6$) = 58.42, $p < .001$; CFI = .98, TLI = .96, IFI = .98, RMR = .028; SRMR = .028 and better than a

single-factor model: χ^2 (*df* = 7) = 337.62, *p* <.001; CFI = .89, TLI = .76, IFI = .89, RMR = .12; SRMR = .09, indicating that the measures of mastery and performance goals were fit for hypothesis testing.

Table 1. Correlation Table Study 1 and 2

Study 1

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Employee Voice	5.45	.82	--							
2. Mastery Goals	5.91	.73	.06	--						
3. Performance Goals	4.67	.91	.07	.30	--					
4. Hierarchical Status	1.07	2.94	.03	.04	.03	--				
5. Team Tenure	2.51	1.12	.15	.11	.03	.57	--			
6. Age	34.13	6.37	.10	.11	.05	.66	.56	--		
7. Education	3.21	.71	.05	.03	-.04	-.36	.08	-.13	--	
8. Task Interdependence	4.92	.92	.03	.24	.25	.10	.14	.11	.03	--
9. Relevant Work Experience	7.88	64.12	.05	.04	.01	.63	.59	.62	-.24	.08

N = 1100 employees on 109 teams with 109 supervisor ratings. Correlations greater than .06 are statistically significant at **p* < .05.

Study 2

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Employee Voice	3.90	1.18	--							
2. Intrinsic Interest	5.19	.94	.15	--						
3. Extrinsic Interest	4.86	.78	-.03	.23	--					
4. Mastery Goals	5.51	.85	.01	.34	.16	--				
5. Performance Goals	4.72	1.19	.01	.08	.29	.24	--			
6. Social Status	4.55	.97	.16	.29	.19	.23	.30	--		
7. Gender	.40	.49	.05	.23	.22	.06	.07	.14	--	
8. Age	19.31	1.79	.19	-.05	-.08	.09	.06	-.02	-.04	--
9. Dyadic Tenure	5.25	6.68	.17	.13	-.05	.09	-.02	.10	.01	.13

N = 150 employees with 95 supervisor raters. Correlations greater than .15 are statistically significant at **p* < .05.

Results and discussion

Analytic procedure. We tested our model using random coefficient modeling (RCM; Bliese & Ployhart, 2002). This technique allowed us to control for shared variance at the group/supervisor level for voice behavior. We tested our three-way

interaction using hierarchical multilevel moderation procedures outlined in Dawson (2014) and Aguinis, Gottfredson, and Culpepper (2013).

Table 1 displays the correlation matrix for Study 1 and 2. Both mastery goals (r = .06, *ns*) and performance goals (r = .07, p < .07) have correlations near zero with employee voice. Table 2 displays the regression results for testing our hypotheses. Models 2 and 3 show that although none of the two-way interactions are statistically significant, the three-way interaction between mastery goals, performance goals, and organizational status is significant (β = .07, p < .05). A simple slopes analysis shows that two combinations of goals and status have positive, statistically significant relationships with voice. When employees have high performance goals and high status, the relationship between mastery goals and voice is positive (β = .10, p < .05), and when employees have high mastery goals but low status and low performance goals, the relationship is also positive (β = .08, p < .05). Further, these results also show there is a negative relationship between mastery goals and voice when employees have high performance goals and low status (β = -.08, p < .05).

Figure 2a displays a graph of the interaction. As hypothesized, the employee voice is highest when employees have high mastery goals, high performance goals, and high organizational status, and in all other cases weaker. In addition, a test of the simple two-way interactions shows that the high-mastery high-performance condition has stronger relationship with voice when status is high rather than when status is low (t = 2.18; p < .05). These results conform to our logic and provide partial support for Hypothesis 1.

Table 2. Regression Model for Sample 1.

Variable	Model 1 DV: Voice Behaviors Par. (SE)	Model 2 DV: Voice Behaviors Par. (SE)	Model 3 DV: Voice Behaviors Par. (SE)
Mastery Goals (MG)	.03(.03)	.02 (.03)	.02 (.03)
Performance Goals (PG)	.03 (.03)	.04 (.03)	.04 (.03)
Organizational Status	.06 (.03)	.06 (.03)	.06 (.03)
Gender	-.02 (.03)	.02 (.03)	.02 (.03)
Team Tenure	.19* (.03)	.19* (.03)	.19* (.03)
Employee Age	.02 (.03)	.06 (.03)	.06 (.03)
Education	-.01 (.03)	.00 (.03)	.00 (.03)
Interdependence	00 (.03)	.00 (.03)	.00 (.03)
Work Experience	-.02 (.03)	-.02 (.03)	-.02 (.03)
MG x PG		-.01 (.03)	-.02 (.03)
MG x Status		.02 (.03)	.03 (.03)
PG x Status		-.03 (.03)	.00 (.03)
MG x PG x Status			.07* (.03)
AIC	2889.17	2906.36	2913.05
-2 Log Likelihood	-1434.59	-1431.59	-1442.52
Pseudo R^2	.08*	.08*	.12*
Δ Pseudo R^2		.00	.04*

N = 1100 employees in 109 teams with 109 supervisor raters with 986 degrees of freedom.
AIC = Akaike Information Criteria.
*$p < .05$.
†$p < .10$.

Study 2

In Study 2, we expand on the results of the first study in order to test the proximal mechanisms that link mastery and performance goals with employee voice behavior. We measured employees' achievement goals, intrinsic interest and extrinsic interest in voice, and their social status in the work team by employees' self-reports. Employee voice is rated by their immediate supervisor. As all employees were on the same organizational hierarchical level, we did not rely on hierarchical positions to reflect their status, but captured their social status through Tangirala and Ramanujam's (2008) scale.

Method

Sample and procedure. We collected data from employees and their immediate supervisors in two branches of a four-star hotel in the Netherlands. Participants were from all major operational and administrative departments. During morning or evening

briefing meetings, questionnaires were administered to employees in order to capture self-reports of achievement goals, intrinsic interest and extrinsic interest in voice, and self-perceived social status. In addition to these self-report data, the employees' immediate supervisors rated employees' voice behavior. Employee and supervisor questionnaires were paired up in dyads to match employees' responses with their supervisors' ratings of employee voice. Participation was voluntary and confidentiality was assured. A total of 180 employee-supervisor dyads were approached and 150 pairs of fully completed questionnaires were returned, resulting in a response rate of 83.33%. The 150 employees were supervised by 95 supervisors, largest team size was 5, smallest team size was 1 (i.e., a supervisor-employee dyad). Of the employees, 60% were female, the average age of the sample was 19.31 years (SD = 1.79). In terms of nationality, 75.3% were Dutch, 10.7% German, and the rest of other nationalities.

Measures

Achievement goals. We used Elliot et al.'s (2011) three-item subscales to measure employee pursuit of mastery and performance goals. We adapted the items to fit the work context. Sample items for mastery goals are "in my work I am striving to do well compared to my past performance" and "my goal in my work is to do better than I typically do." Sample items for performance goals are "my aim in my work is to outperform colleagues" and "in my work I am striving to do well compared to colleagues." The response scale ranged from one ("strongly disagree") to seven ("strongly agree"). The Cronbach's alpha for the three-item measure of mastery goal was calculated to be .87. For the three items measuring performance goal, the alpha value was calculated to be .88.

Intrinsic interest in voice. Employee intrinsic interest in voice was measured using Tierney, Farmer, and Graen's (1999) scale. Sample items are "I enjoy finding

solutions to complex problems", "I enjoy coming up with new ideas for products" and "I enjoy improving existing processes or products." The response scale ranged from one ("strongly disagree") to seven ("strongly agree"). The Cronbach's alpha for this five-item scale was calculated to be .86.

Extrinsic interest in voice. Employee extrinsic interest in voice was captured using an adapted version of Yuan and Woodman's (2010) scale. Sample items of this three-item scale are "the more concerns and suggestions for change I take to my supervisor, the better my job performance" and "coming up with concerns and recommendations to my supervisor helps me do well on my job." The response scale ranged from one ("strongly disagree") to seven ("strongly agree"). The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was calculated to be .79.

Social status. Employee self-perceived status was measured by the three-item scale from Tangirala and Ramanujam's (2008) study. Sample items are "my team holds me in high regard" and "I have a lot of status within the team". The response scale ranged from one ("strongly disagree") to seven ("strongly agree"). The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was calculated to be .88.

Employee voice. Employee voice was measured by the nine-item Liu et al. (2010) scale. Sample items are "this particular employee communicates his/her opinions about work issues to me even if his/her opinion is different, and I disagree with him/her" and "this particular employee points out to me to eliminate redundant or unnecessary procedures." The response scale ranged from one (“strongly disagree”) to seven (“strongly agree”). The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was calculated to be .90.

Control variables. We included control variables of age, gender, team tenure, and team size in our survey. Previous studies have shown that these factors relate to voice behavior (e.g., Detert & Burris, 2007; Janssen & Gao, 2015; LePine & Van

Dyne, 1998; Venkataramani & Tangirala, 2010). We included them in our survey to account for how they might affect voice frequency in our sample's respondents.

Measurement Model. Prior to testing the hypotheses, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to check our measures' convergent and discriminant validity of the scales of employees' self-report measures of mastery goal, performance goal, intrinsic interest in voice, extrinsic interest in voice, and status. The original five-factor model showed good fit indices: χ^2 (109) = 134.45, χ^2/DF = 1.23, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .04. We compared the original model with three possible alternative models: a single-factor model in which all observed items were loaded on one construct, a two-factor model in which the observed items of the two achievement goals were loaded on one construct and the observed items of the other three variables were loaded on one construct, and a three-factor model in which the observed items of the two achievement goals were loaded on one construct, the observed items of intrinsic interest and extrinsic interest were loaded on one construct, and the observed items of status were loaded on one construct. The original five-factor model was superior to the single-factor model (χ^2 = 923.73, χ^2/DF = 7.76, $\Delta\chi^2$ = 789.28, CFI = .36, RMSEA = .21), the two-factor model (χ^2 = 736.61, χ^2/DF = 6.24, $\Delta\chi^2$ = 602.16, CFI = .51, RMSEA = .19), and the three-factor model (χ^2 = 503.80, χ^2/DF = 4.34, $\Delta\chi^2$ = 369.35, CFI = .69, RMSEA = .15). These findings indicate that the measures of mastery goal, performance goal, intrinsic interest, extrinsic interest, and status possess adequate discriminant validity.

Results and discussion

Analytic strategy. To account for the multilevel and nested nature of our data, we again used multilevel RCM procedures to conduct our regression. To test our mediation effects and in particular conditional indirect effects, we used the

PRODCLIN procedure (Tofighi & MacKinnon, 2011). The PRODCLIN procedure uses a robust random resampling procedure to generate asymmetric, asymptotically unbiased 95% confidence intervals and is similar in structure and function to similar procedures such as the Hayes macro (Hayes et al., 2008) and Edwards and Lambert's (2007) moderated mediation procedures.

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics and correlation matrix for the sample. In this sample, neither mastery (r = .01, *ns*) nor performance (r = .01, *ns*) goals have positive, statistically significant relationships with voice behavior, though perceived social status does (r = .16, p < .05).

Table 3. Regression Model for Sample 2.

Variable	Model 1 DV: Intrinsic Interest in Voice Par. (SE)	Model 2 DV: Extrinsic Interest in Voice Par. (SE)	Model 3 DV: Voice Behaviors Par. (SE)	Model 4 DV: Voice Behaviors Par. (SE)	Model 5 DV: Voice Behaviors Par. (SE)
Intrinsic Interest (II)	--	.13 (.09)	.16* (.08)	.16* (.08)	.14 (.09)
Extrinsic Interest (EI)	.12 (.08)	--	-.03 (.09)	-.03 (.09)	-.09 (.09)
Mastery Goals	.27* (.08)	.05 (.09)	-.10 (.09)	-.10 (.09)	-.15 (.09)
Performance Goals	-.09 (.08)	.25* (.09)	-.03 (.09)	-.03 (.09)	-.01 (.09)
Status	.19* (.08)	.05 (.08)	.16* (.08)	.16* (.08)	.04 (.09)
Gender	.17* (.08)	.14† (.07)	.02 (.09)	.02 (.09)	.06 (.09)
Employee Age	-.05 (.08)	-.06 (.09)	.19* (.09)	.19* (.09)	.21* (.09)
Dyadic Tenure	.09 (.08)	-.05 (.08)	.11 (.09)	.11 (.09)	.09 (.09)
II x EI				.01 (.08)	.01 (.10)
II x Status				.11 (.08)	.13 (.08)
EI x Status				.07 (.08)	.08 (.08)
II x EI x Status					.24* (.06)
AIC	431.93	442.75	455.87	459.16	464.95
-2 Log Likelihood	-204.97	-210.38	-198.98	-200.12	-216.48
Pseudo R^2	.38*	.25*	.14*	.14*	.18*
Δ Pseudo R^2				.00	.04*

N = 150 employees with 95 supervisor raters and 94 degrees of freedom. AIC = Akaike Information Criteria.
*p < .05.
†p < .10.

Table 4. Simple Slopes Comparison Across the Two Studies

Study 1 Conditions	Simple Slope Value	Study 2 Conditions	First Stage [a]	Second Stage (Simple Slope Value) [b]	Conditional Indirect Effects [c]
High Performance Goals, High Status	.10* (.07, .13)	High Extrinsic Interest, High Status	.27*	.50* (.42, .58)	.14* (.11,.17)
High Performance Goals, Low Status	-.08* (-.11, -.05)	High Extrinsic Interest, Low Status	.27*	-.24* (-.32, -.16)	-.06* (-.09,-.03)
Low Performance Goals, High Status	.02 (-.01, .05)	Low Extrinsic Interest, High Status	.27*	-.02 (-.10, .06)	-.01 (-.04, .02)
Low Performance Goals, Low Status	.08* (-.11, -.05)	Low Extrinsic Interest, Low Status	.27*	.24* (.16, .32)	.06* (.03, .09)

N = 1100 employees in Study 1 and 150 employees in Study 2. Bias – corrected confidence intervals are reported in parentheses.
*95% CI does not contain zero.
a. Mastery Approach Goals → Intrinsic Interest in Voice
b. Intrinsic Interest in Voice → Employee Voice Behavior
c. Mastery Goals → Intrinsic Interest in Voice → Employee Voice Behavior.

Hypothesis 2 states that mastery goals should have a positive relationship with intrinsic interest in voice. Results from Table 3, Model 1 show that mastery goals have a positive, statistically significant relationship with intrinsic interest in voice ($\beta = .27$, $p < .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is supported.

Hypothesis 3 states that performance goals are positively related to extrinsic interest in voice. Results from Table 3, model 2 show that performance goals have a positive, statistically significant relationship with extrinsic interest in voice ($\beta = .25$, $p < .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 3 is supported.[3]

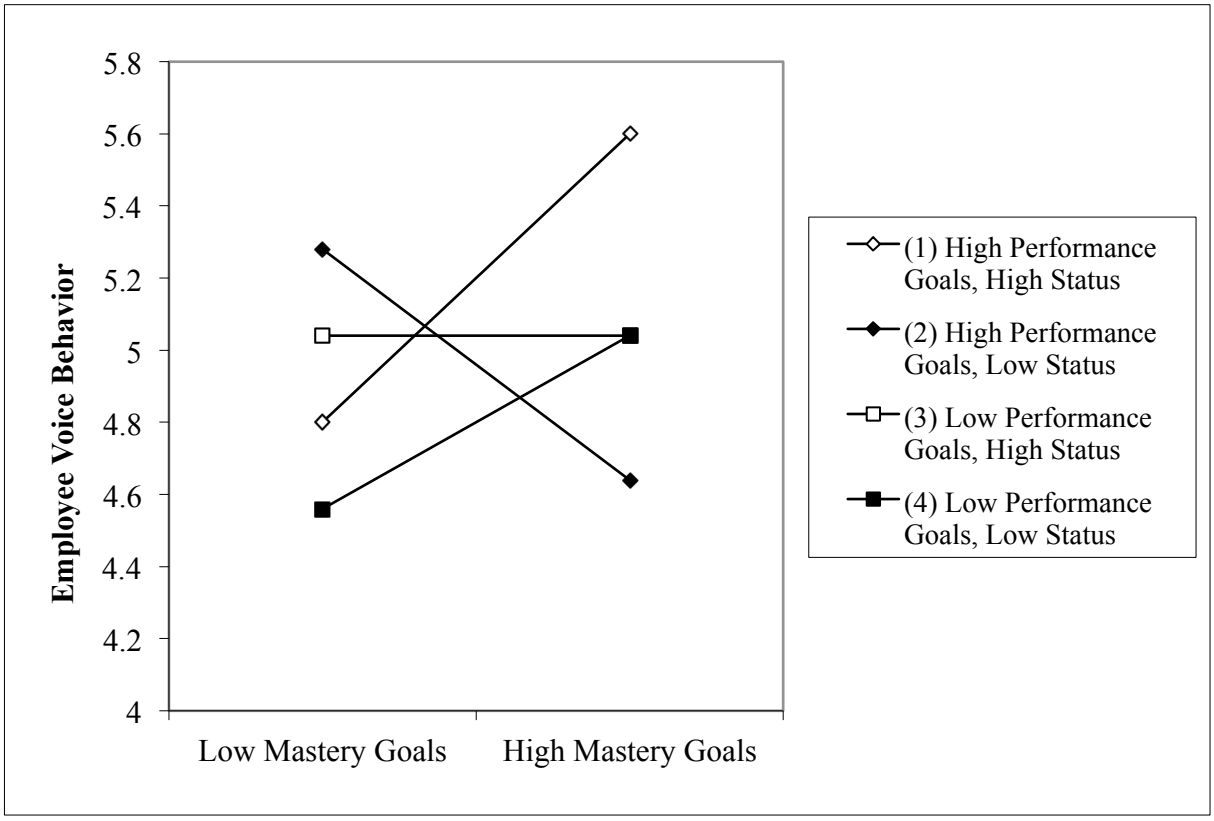
[3] Because H2 and H3 were tested using cross-sectional data, we collected an additional sample of 49 hotel employees with a two-week time spacing between the predictors and mediators. Results of an RCM analysis show that the pattern of results from this sample is essentially the same as the pattern in the reported sample. Detailed results are available by contacting the authors.

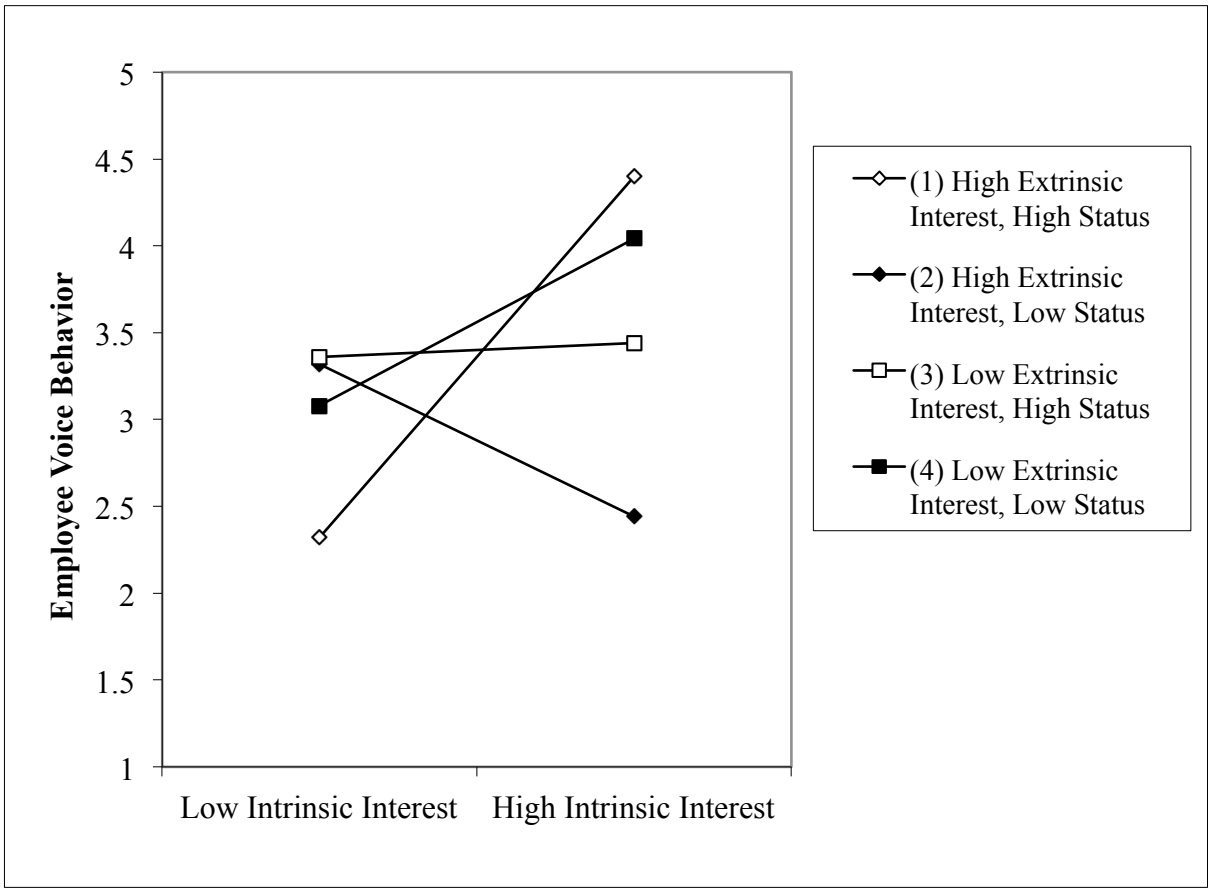
Hypothesis 4 states that there is a three-way interaction among intrinsic interest in voice, extrinsic interest in voice, and status such that the relationship between intrinsic interest in voice and voice behavior is positive only when extrinsic interest in voice is higher rather than lower and status is higher rather than lower. Table 3, model 5 shows that the three-way interaction between status, intrinsic interest, and extrinsic interest in voice is statistically significant ($\beta = .24$, $p < .05$). A simple slopes analysis shows that the relationship between intrinsic interest and voice is strongest when employees have both high status and high extrinsic interest in voice ($\beta = .50$, $p < .05$). These results also show a positive relationship between intrinsic interest and voice when extrinsic interest was low and status was low ($\beta = .24$, $p < .05$). Furthermore, these results also show that there is a null relationship between intrinsic interest and voice when extrinsic interest is low and status is high ($\beta = -.02$, *ns*). Finally, the relationship between intrinsic interest and voice is negative when extrinsic interest is high but status is low ($\beta = -.24$, $p < .05$). Figure 2b displays the form of this interaction. As hypothesized, voice behaviors are highest when employees have high intrinsic interest, high extrinsic interest, and high social status. Results of a simple two-way interaction analysis show that the two-way interaction between high intrinsic and extrinsic interests in voice is more positive when status is high, supporting H4 ($t = 2.31$, $p < .05$). However, these results also show that employees with high intrinsic interest but low status and low extrinsic interest in voice also engage in high levels of voice. These findings provide partial support for Hypothesis 4.

Hypothesis 5 states that status operates as a second-stage moderator in the indirect relationships of mastery and performance goals with voice behavior that are mediated by the two-way interaction between intrinsic and extrinsic interests in voice. As shown in Table 4, the indirect relationship between mastery goals and voice

through intrinsic interest is stronger when both extrinsic interest and status are higher (indirect effect = .14; 95% CI: [.11, .17]) than when both extrinsic interest and status are lower (indirect effect = .06; 95% CI: [.03, .09]), and when extrinsic interest is higher and status is lower (indirect effect = -.06; 95% CI: [-.09, -.03]), and when extrinsic is lower and status is higher (indirect effect = -.01; 95% CI: [-.04, .02]). These findings provide full support for Hypothesis 5.

Figure 2. Graph of interactions in Study 1 (2a; top) and Study 2 (2b; below)





Discussion

We conducted two studies to examine the three-way interaction among mastery goals, performance goals, and status as they relate to employee voice. Results from the two studies show a consistent pattern of three-way interactions across both studies: the highest levels of voice occur when employees have high mastery goals, high performance goals, and high social status. This pattern of interaction is robust across different instruments to measure achievement goals, different methods of capturing social status, different measures of voice behavior and different geographical and organizational contexts. Furthermore, the pattern of simple slope relationships across the two samples is also similar, with both studies showing the strongest relationship between mastery goals and voice when both performance goals and status are high, null effects when performance goals are low but mastery goals are high, and negative effects when performance goals are high but status is low. In addition, results of Study 2 confirm our expectation that the proximal mechanisms of intrinsic and extrinsic interest in voice underlie the link between achievement goals and voice. Specifically, we found mastery goals focus employees' attention on the intrinsic value of voice behavior (i.e., voice is valuable and attractive in itself due to its potential for learning, improvement, and development), whereas performance goals are tied to employees' extrinsic interest in voice (i.e., voice as a means to demonstrate superior job performance). Also as expected, intrinsic and extrinsic interest in voice formed a three-way interaction with employees' status in the work group relating to employee voice behavior.

Theoretical implications

This article has several theoretical implications for research and literature on both voice and achievement motivation. First, the findings from these two studies

support our core theoretical proposition that the motivation for voice is multifaceted and linked to both mastery-based, intrinsic and performance-based, extrinsic goals and interest in voice. We theorized and found support that voice is associated with both the motivation to improve (i.e., mastery goals) and the motivation to display expertise and skill to others (i.e., performance goals). These findings add to the voice literature because they supplement the ongoing emphasis on the prosocial motivation driving employee voice (e.g., Grant & Ashford, 2008; Morrison, 2014; Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003). Our findings suggest that in addition to prosocial motivations, individuals' intrinsic interest in voice and desires for extrinsic reward are also key elements to understanding motivational antecedents of voice.

Second, in addition to refining the understanding of voice's underlying prosocial motivation, the findings of our studies also clarify the proximal process mechanisms through which mastery and performance goals promote employee voice. Recent research has shown that approach orientation constructs are good candidates for understanding the motivational antecedents of voice (e.g., Kakkar et al., 2016; Tangirala et al., 2013). We incorporate mastery goals and performance goals as motivational antecedents of voice and intrinsic interest and extrinsic interest in voice as proximal mediating mechanisms. Specifically, we found that mastery goals are associated with higher intrinsic interest in voice and performance goals are associated with higher extrinsic interest in voice. These findings extend prior research identifying the proximal factors that underlie the link between achievement goals and approach-oriented behaviors, such as epistemic regulation (Darnon & Butera, 2007), deep information processing (Elliot, 1999; Pintrich, 2000), and reciprocity orientation (Poortvliet, Janssen, Van Yperen, & Van de Vliert, 2007) induced by mastery goals

and relational regulation (Darnon & Butera, 2007) and exploitation orientation (Poortvliet et al., 2007) induced by performance goals.

Third, we have identified employees' social status at work as a boundary condition that changes how employees' achievement motivation relates to their voice behavior. Researchers have long recognized the socio-political benefits and risks associated with voice, finding that efficacy-safety concerns often relate to the frequency of employee voice (e.g., Ashford et al., 1998, Morrison, 2014; Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Studies have identified a number of factors such as psychological safety, leader solicitation of voice, and voice climate that could ease employees' efficacy-safety concerns (Detert & Burris, 2007; Detert & Trevino, 2010). We extend this line of research by developing arguments for how status can also serve as a boundary condition. Employees' social status in the work team alters the relationship between employees' work motivation and their voice behaviors because of its potential influence on individuals' ability and safety to enact their internal motivations (McGee & Galinksy, 2008). Our findings from both studies support our line of argumentation.

Fourth, we did not anticipate that the slope of the relationship between mastery goals and voice would be positive when both performance goals and social status were low. Similarly, we also found the slope of the relationship between intrinsic interest and voice was positive when extrinsic interest was low and status was low. Although these findings do not directly contradict our hypotheses, they were unanticipated. A possible explanation for these two slopes to be positive could be that the intrinsic interest for voice associated with mastery goals makes these employees less sensitive about efficacy-safety concerns when they have low status *and* weak performance goals. According to Phillips and Zuckerman's (2001) middle-status conformity theory, low-status actors -- other than middle-status actors -- tend to have little fear of

sanctions associated with violations of group norms because they have little to lose. As they experience little conformity pressure, they can surprise by making misaligned choices and rocking the boat (Durand & Kremp, 2016; Jordan, Sivanathan, & Galinksy, 2011). As such, for employees with low status and low performance goals, the intrinsic interest in voice (induced by strong mastery goals) might have been a sufficient driver for voice behaviors because these individuals were more willing to take risks and had "nothing to lose" in terms of performance demonstration or social status. However, efficacy-safety concerns were likely to become more salient for low-status employees who combined strong mastery goals with strong performance goals. For these employees, voice behavior has not only intrinsic value but should also be instrumental for performance demonstration. Their reduced standing and reputation in the work group (low status), however, make these employees believe they might not effectively implement voice behaviors and attain their performance goals, leading them to refrain from voice engagement. This rationale could explain why these simple slopes representing the relationship between mastery goals and voice were positive under the conditions of weak performance goals and low status and negative under the conditions of high performance goals and low status.

Finally, this article extends the relatively small body of empirical literature on the multiple goal perspective of achievement motivation (Barron & Harackiewicz, 2001; DeShon & Gillespie, 2005; Senko et al., 2011). Our results show that both mastery and performance goals are associated with voice behavior and that the simultaneous pursuit of both goals, along with status, is associated with the highest levels of voice. These findings are not only consistent with the fundamental assumption of the multiple goal perspective that individuals can be motivated by multiple goals simultaneously. They also support the interactive model of the multiple

goal theory (i.e., the two goals have a positive interactive relationship that increases an outcome). Our model of Study 1 tested the direct interaction between the two goals along with status while Study 2 tested a moderated mediation variation of the interactive model in which the two goals triggered intrinsic and extrinsic interests in voice behavior which then interacted with status to relate to employee voice behavior. Both models contribute to the empirical verification of the multiple goal perspective.

Practical implications

Our findings have several practical implications for employees and supervisors working in the business field. Our results show that the highest levels of voice occur when employees have high mastery goals, high performance goals, and high social status. Consequently, to motivate and promote employees' engagement in voice behaviors, employees should be encouraged to pursue both mastery and performance goals at work because they are associated with intrinsic and extrinsic interest in engaging in voice behaviors. Organizations can encourage the creation and maintenance of these goals and interests by using performance appraisal and reward systems that reflect both intrapersonal and interpersonal standards. To promote mastery goals, evaluation and appraisal policies can emphasize the fundamental principle that employees' skills and capabilities can be developed through efforts. Goal setting procedures as part of the appraisal cycle should also incorporate intrapersonal performance standards which can show the incremental developments and improvements over time. To facilitate performance goals, organizations can incorporate comparative performance standards in the performance appraisal systems in order to stimulate performance goals for employees who have strong mastery goals. By encouraging employees to consider pursuing multiple goals, organizations can stimulate voice behavior.

Moreover, our findings show that the highest levels of voice occur when employees have strong mastery goals, strong performance goals, and high status. The practical implication of these results is that supervisors and managers ought to give more opportunities to those employees with relatively low status in the work team to speak up. This implication matters most for low-status employees with high mastery and performance goals. Such employees are likely to have strong motivation and interest to engage in voice but face structural barriers that restrain them. Supervisors and managers may be able to restructure status in their groups to encourage such employees to engage in voice and take full advantage of these individuals' feedback.

Potential limitations and future research

The findings of this article need to be considered in light of their limitations. One limitation is that both studies reported in this article were based on cross-sectional data. Thus, direction of causality is not certain. Although we recognize this factor as a limitation, the conceptualized causality was fully in line with prior research showing that achievement goals and goal orientations influence work behaviors and performances (e.g., Barron & Harackiewicz, 2000; Elliot & Church, 1997; Ford, Weissbein, Smith, & Gully, 1998; Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004; Payne et al., 2007; VandeWalle et al., 1999; Yeo et al., 2009). In addition, the fact that both studies showed a consistent pattern of three-way interactions across different instruments to measure achievement goals, different methods of capturing social status, different measures of voice behavior, and different geographical and organizational contexts provides further support for the hypothesized direction of causality. Because of our mode of data collection, common method bias for study 1 is less likely to be a matter of concern, given our findings of significant interaction effects (Evans, 1985). However, longitudinal and experimental research is needed to confirm and further

support causal directions among achievement goals, interest in voice, status, and employee voice behavior.

The other limitation of these studies relates to control variables. When conceptualizing the three-way interaction models, we selectively focused on the approach versions of achievement goals due to their theoretical relevance to challenging-promotive voice. However, avoidance goals may also play a role in relation to the efficacy-safety calculus of voice, and thereby, regulate voice behaviors to a certain extent. To be able to control for avoidance goals would strengthen our ability to rule out alternative goal profiles that may also be associated with voice. In the same vein, to control for additional proximal associates of voice such as voice instrumentality, voice efficacy, and role breadth self-efficacy would reduce the plausibility of alternative explanations for our findings. Consequently, we encourage future research to explore potential interactive effects among additional versions of achievement goals and other factors related to efficacy-safety issues of voice in regulating employee voice behaviors.

In future studies, researchers can also do more to study different types of social status or organizational ranks because the pattern between rank and employee voice may show a curvilinear relationship. Too much status in a group may constrain voice behaviors because those employees cannot engage in too much challenging behavior without threatening the social structure of the group or team. Further, as potential socio-political risk factors, future studies could also explore other social status structures including alumni connections, kinship ties, regional ties or network. Our finding of the positive relationship between mastery goals and voice under the conditions of weak performance goals and low status could also be explored and tested by considering how different social structures or power dynamics alter these results.

For employees with mastery and low performance goals, other social factors such as dense network ties with other team members or pre-existing relationships with the supervisor could also alter the motivation for voice.

Conclusion

This article provides new insights on the complex motivational patterns that regulate employee challenging-promotive voice behavior. Building from our conceptualization on the multiple goal perspective, our investigation shows that the highest levels of voice occur when employees have high mastery goals, high performance goals, and high social status. Furthermore, we show that the proximal mechanisms which explain how mastery and performance goals promote voice are employees' intrinsic and extrinsic interests in voice. The findings across two studies show a consistent three-way interaction pattern that higher-status employees who pursue both mastery and performance goals are the most motivated to engage in voice. Our results are important to the voice literature because they demonstrate the desire to achieve improvement for the organization (i.e., mastery goals) and the desire to demonstrate superior job performance relative to others (i.e., performance goals) are both relevant for employee voice. Our findings also show that status, both objective and perceived, serves as a boundary condition that changes how employees' motivation relates to voice behavior because it alters employees' efficacy-safety concerns about the social opportunities and risks associated with voice.